

Evaluating and Mitigating the Impact of Complexity in Software Models

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Abstract

Safety-critical systems, such as those used in the avionics, aerospace, medical, and automotive domains, are becoming more software reliant, and their size has increased enormously. These systems are becoming more complex, increasing certification costs. As certification is expensive and verification activities require significant manpower, this increasing complexity impacts the total cost of ownership. While part of the complexity is intrinsic to system functions and requirements, another part can be avoided. As software development is moving toward model-based approaches, reducing software model size and avoidable complexity would lower certification costs and reduce software maintenance efforts. This report defines software complexity, metrics for complexity in models, and the effects of model complexity on levels of effort in the development, integration, maintenance, and upgrade costs of a project lifecycle. It focuses on popular code metrics for models; their definition, measurement, and implications for development efforts; and techniques that have been used to reduce complexity, such as implementing a complexity measurement tool on a modeling tool. This report also presents an analysis tool that can be used to identify and measure complexity in a model-based development approach and explains how to apply the newly defined metrics.

1 Introduction

Safety-critical systems—such as those used in the avionics, aerospace, medical, and automotive domains—are becoming extremely software reliant. The size of avionics software has increased enormously in the past few decades: as illustrated in Figure 1, the size of military avionics software increased from 135 KSLOC (thousand source lines of code) to 24 MSLOC (million source lines of code) in less than 40 years [Hagan 2012]. The software used by the Apache helicopter grew from 300 KSLOC in Model AH-64A (produced between 1984 and 1997) to over 1.4 MSLOC in Model AH64-D (produced until 2012) [McGarry 2012]. This trend is also true for other domains: automotive systems contain more and more electronic functions and, as space is scarce, most of these functions are implemented using software rather than hardware, which also facilitates system upgrade and maintenance. Because failure of such systems might have important consequences, software for safety-critical systems must be designed and certified against stringent certification standards [ISO 2011, RTCA 2011a].

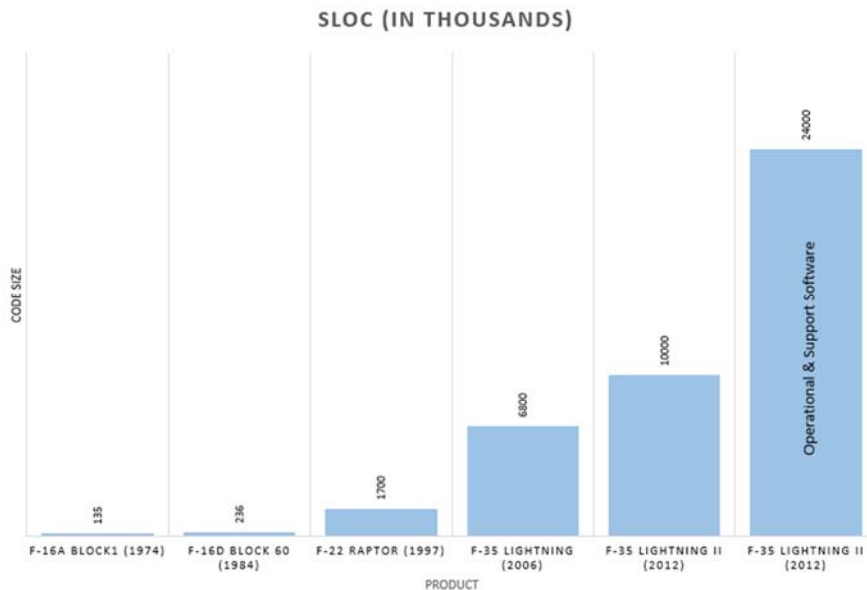


Figure 1: Growth of Avionics Software in KSLOC [Adapted from Hagan 2012]

An increase of software volume (i.e., number of lines of code [LOC]) implies that more components are executed by different computers and connected through networks using specific protocols. This increasing use of software also increases its complexity: interconnected components perform various functions, potentially at different criticality levels (e.g., entertainment system vs. cruise control), and designers must ensure isolation among these different criticality levels. According to certification standards, a system must be free of any design errors and must be tested and validated to demonstrate that a component with low criticality cannot interfere with a component of high criticality [ISO 2011, RTCA 2011a].

Compliance with these requirements is expensive: related verification activities—such as code review, unit testing, and integration testing—require significant effort in terms of manpower and are

tightly dependent on the software size. Reducing software size and complexity would not only lower certification costs but also reduce software maintenance effort.

During the past few years, safety-critical software development has been moving toward model-based engineering (MBE) approaches, which consist of abstracting software concerns in models with specific notation. The objective is to use models like SCADE and SIMULINK to represent the software with accurate and convenient semantics that can be edited with a user-friendly interface [ANSYS 2014a, MathWorks 2015]. This representation is then processed to validate and verify the architecture and ultimately transformed into executable code. A model-based approach ensures that system requirements are met and validated and removes the usual defects introduced by manual code production. Also, some standards [RTCA 2011a] allow the use of a certified code generator such as SCADE, which then waives code certification activities and, thus, reduces significantly the cost associated with them.

In this report, we introduce a method that we developed to identify model complexity and estimate its impact in terms of cost and effort savings. We detail the savings of MBE with a general cost-savings model that compares savings between traditional and model-based development processes. We define and explain how to measure complexity in software models and present several strategies to reduce or eliminate it. Then, we apply this approach with the SCADE modeling language and present our tool to compute complexity metrics from SCADE systems [ANSYS 2014a]. The following sections introduce the key concepts related to model complexity and present the outline of this report.

1.1 Toward a Definition of Software Complexity

When applied to a system, the term *complexity* has different dimensions and associated understandings. One definition of complexity is based on the “ease of understanding” a software model representing a software system design specified by an engineer. Two components of this dimension are

- **the notation:** A clear, unambiguous language with a precise semantics eases the understanding of the model.
- **the user:** A well-trained user who is familiar with a notation will take less time to understand and maintain a model.

Obviously, a model that is easy to understand is also easier to use and maintain, which reduces the likelihood that a user will introduce errors when updating it. For that reason, the notation should be designed to reduce or mitigate complexity. In addition, tools must be designed so that they guide users not familiar with the notation and help them both understand the model and avoid design mistakes.

1.2 Distinguishing Essential and Avoidable Complexity

Evidence shows that software complexity has increased significantly over time not only because of the increase in number of functions but also because of a paradigm shift in which more functions are realized using software rather than hardware [Nolte 2009]. This prevalence of software usage induces an organic increase of software complexity, a type of complexity required to imple-

ment all the necessary functions. This is the *essential complexity* of a system, and it cannot be mitigated by any means other than changing the design (removing functions or implementing them in hardware instead of in software).

However, complexity can be also introduced through poor design and implementation techniques. For example, too many interfaces on a component or too many nesting levels make software review and analysis difficult. This is the *avoidable complexity* of a system, and it can be removed by refactoring the system and using appropriate design patterns.

The total software complexity is the sum of the essential and the avoidable complexity. The essential complexity is related to the system functions and cannot be mitigated. On the other hand, the avoidable complexity is not necessary and incurs potential rework, refactoring, or re-engineering efforts. For that reason, it should be avoided as much as possible and as early as possible.

1.3 Research Questions

The purpose of this research is to better understand the dimensions of complexity within a model-based software development paradigm. Specifically, our research questions are as follows:

1. **How can we identify complexity in model-based systems?** Is it possible to reuse metrics and approaches applied to traditional programming languages, or should we establish new metrics specific to model-based notations?
2. **How can we measure complexity and distinguish essential from avoidable complexity?** How can we detect avoidable complexity? What metrics are effective for doing that?
3. **What is the impact of complexity?** How much does it cost to maintain complex software, and how much can we save by reducing its complexity?
4. **How can we mitigate software complexity?** Can we identify particular modeling elements and patterns that incur avoidable complexity?

1.4 Overview of the Investigative Approach

In order to achieve our research goals, we undertook several parallel efforts to address the research questions posed in the previous section:

- Review existing literature on software complexity applied to models and traditional programming languages.
- Understand the use of model-based tools and how they can be used to mitigate software complexity.
- Identify complexity metrics that are indicators of software quality and cost, and implement tools that generate complexity metrics in software models.
- Evaluate the impact of model complexity with respect to phases of the development lifecycle (e.g., integration, acceptance, maintenance), and establish a method for determining return on investment to estimate potential cost savings when using models.
- Identify techniques to reduce software complexity in models.
- Design tools that produce complexity metrics from software models.

1.5 Structure of This Report

Section 1 (this introduction) provides our motivation to study complexity and the essential research questions that we address in this effort. Some background information provides the reader with a basis for the work and related areas explored.

Section 2 (The Impact of Complexity) discusses the impact of model-based development, the complexity at the software level, some associated metrics, and the effects of complexity in terms of relative levels of effort in the integration, maintenance, and upgrade costs of a project lifecycle.

Section 3 (Detecting and Avoiding Complexity) focuses on the more popular code metrics; their application to software models; their definition, measurement, and implications with respect to development efforts; and techniques that have been used to reduce complexity.

Section 4 (Detecting Complexity – A Practical Example) presents new complexity perspectives and associated techniques in the form of a model analysis tool. This tool identifies and measures complexity in software models and has been integrated in an existing modeling platform.

Section 5 (Results and Conclusions) reviews the results of how complexity is introduced in the development of a system and how an MBE approach can help mitigate that complexity.

2 The Impact of Model-Based Engineering on Software Complexity

Traditional software development techniques that implement solutions in embedded systems, control systems, integrated modular avionics, and so forth are reaching scalability limits in both cost and assurance. In this section, we compare the economics of traditional development to development that relies on MBE and extend the argument in favor of MBE to include efforts that reduce the complexity of MBE models.

The volume, complexity, and cost of software development for safety-critical systems—such as in avionics, aerospace, defense, medical, or automotive systems—are trending upward. Figure 2 shows the trend in system size for avionic systems. Software volume, measured by lines of code, is on a trend to double every four years. Figure 2 includes software development cost estimates using COCOMO II of approximately \$300 per line of code (LOC). High costs result from the need for highly skilled developers, the level of verification required for certification [DO-178 IG 2015, Hilderman 2009, RTCA 2011a], and a growing test volume. Although high cost is often attributed to the need for low defect density, it may be more correct to attribute cost to both the methods used to produce the software and the requirements for certification of its quality. Data from SEI customers suggests development rates of approximately 5 LOC per developer day for avionic code (this is only about half the rate used in *The Mythical Man-Month* [Brooks 1995]), resulting in about 1,000 LOC per year per developer. Assuming a fully burdened rate cost of \$150,000 per developer, we estimate \$150 per LOC using the best methods known but not necessarily satisfying DO-178B/C standards. Although precise values matter very much to developers and customers, this range is sufficient to illustrate that (1) the figure contains reasonable estimates and (2) development is rapidly approaching a point of unaffordability using current methods.

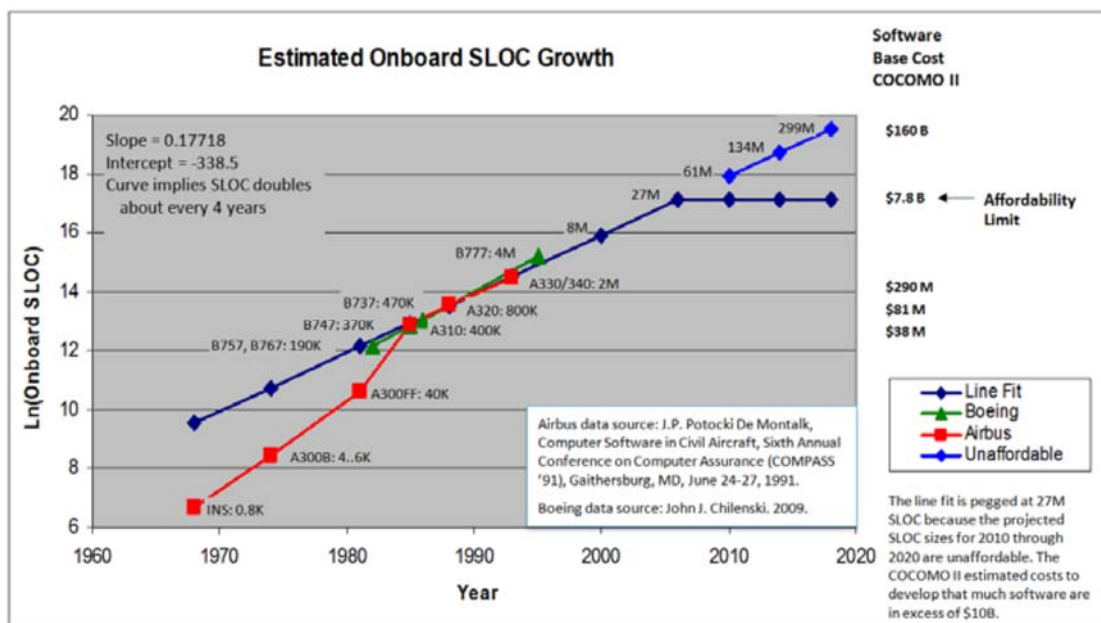


Figure 2: Increasing Size of Onboard Avionic Software [Reprinted with permission from Redman et al. 2010]

Another aspect of the increasing cost of software is that defect rates, using conventional development methods for high-assurance safety-critical systems, are commonly believed to be approximately 100 defects per MSLOC [Li 1998], or more than a factor of 10 better than leading commercial software. The very best in class are perhaps 20 defects per MSLOC. Because 20% of defects may be serious and 1% may be fatal, software with even 1 to 5 defects per MSLOC is likely to contain at least 1 serious software defect, despite our best efforts with certification. For reasons we will discuss, MBE holds the promise [Hagan 2012] of pushing development defects consistently down toward the best-in-class numbers by aiding in the development of less complex underlying models with fewer defects, more easily discoverable defects, or both. Assuming that any added effort or other costs associated with reducing model complexity do not exceed the amounts saved by having fewer or easier-to-find defects, reducing complexity should be no worse than a break-even proposition in economic terms, with a net gain in quality as gauged by a lower number of defects found in the field.

Advocates of MBE propose that it will reduce manual labor, defects, and unnecessary complexity. The Correctness by Construction method relies on principles similar to MBE by validating and verifying a system as much as possible early in the design process. Prior work in Correctness by Construction on formal modeling and certified construction of code has shown practical promise [Barnes 2009], and regulations have been adapted to recognize formal proofs and certified code generators for verification [RTCA 2011b].

We argue that MBE is more cost-effective [Hagan 2012]—in terms of fewer dollars, shorter schedules, or both—and better because it reduces the amount of hand-built code, delivers fewer defects and thus higher assurance, and reduces the cost of verification for comparable systems developed through traditional software techniques. MBE achieves these benefits by reducing the complexity visible to the developer with a higher level of abstraction and avoiding unnecessary complexity related to code production through automated translation of designs into code. Additional reductions of complexity in the underlying model should further reduce the remaining coding and debugging effort during development, decreasing implementation costs accordingly. This less-complex MBE representation should also be easier to verify, resulting in reduced verification, inspection, and testing efforts and in higher quality in terms of fewer escaped defects.

2.1 Complexity Reduction

MBE reduces or hides complexity (such as complexity related to code production and testing activities). Reduction may result from improved design using formal notation at a higher level of abstraction. At a minimum, however, MBE hides much of the complexity (cyclomatic complexity) at the code level within the module. This hidden complexity represents code that need not be built by hand but can be machine generated. There is substantial evidence that cyclomatic complexity is linearly correlated with product size [Jay 2009, Hopkins 2008], at least within a domain, as illustrated by Figure 3.

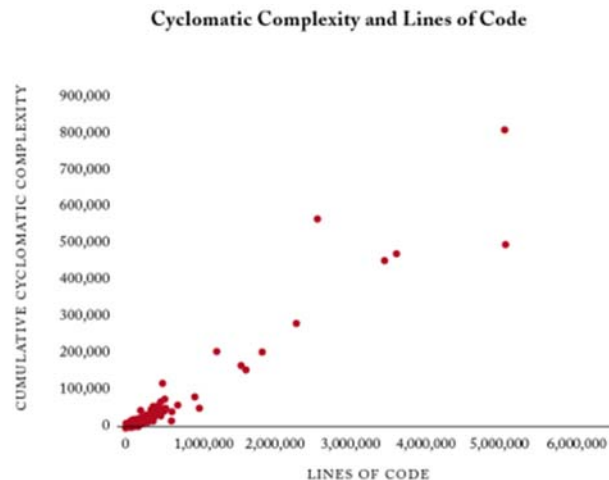


Figure 3: Cyclomatic Complexity Increases with Size [Reprinted with permission from Maxwell 2008]

On the other hand, faults tend to increase superlinearly with size and complexity [Hatton 1997, Withrow 1990]. To the extent that MBE reduces the amount of hand-built code, it should have a direct linear effect on size and effort and a superlinear effect on software defect density.

The following sections discuss modeling of the development process and engineering economics. We also explain why the complexity of software models matters and how it impacts the benefits of MBE, increasing or decreasing the value of MBE development approaches.

2.2 Development

Traditional or conventional software development involves highly variable amounts of requirements engineering and design, followed by an equal or greater amount of coding effort, followed by an amount of inspections, testing, and integration. Verification and validation vary according to the assurance levels required by the application (e.g., the Design Assurance Level [DAL] for avionics application), regulatory requirements, the size of the code, and especially the defect content of the code. High-assurance code typically relies on both team inspections and exhaustive testing. Each production activity has the potential to introduce defects into the system, including the possibility that defect fixes themselves are defective. In this section, we provide benchmarks for production and defect rates for baseline development, examine how MBE changes the cost of production, and infer how reducing complexity in the underlying model should increase the benefits of MBE.

At typical levels of quality, Jones estimates the expected costs associated with defects in several phases of the lifecycle [Jones 2012a]:

Typical data for cost per defect varies from study to study but resembles the following pattern circa 2012:

Defects found during requirements = \$250

Defects found during design = \$500

Defects found during coding and testing = \$1,250

Defects found after release = \$5,000

To better understand how MBE might change the economics of development and verification, we begin by noting the role that correctness of the software plays in safety and security [Davis 2004] and then examine benchmark data for how effort is distributed among the development phases for a high-quality development process. The data in Table 1 are from teams using the Team Software Process (TSP) [Humphrey 2000, Musson 2002]. TSP data has the advantages of representing high-quality development and including sufficiently detailed measurements to inform estimates involving process change.

Table 1: Effort Distribution for Production of High-Quality Software

Phase	% Effort
Planning	2.00
Requirements	2.00
System Test Plan	2.50
Requirements Inspection	5.00
High-Level Design (HLD)	7.00
Integration Test Plan	5.00
HLD Inspection	3.00
Detailed-Level Design (DLD)	11.50
DLD Review	5.00
Test Development	5.00
DLD Inspection	10.00
Code	15.00
Code Review	5.00
Compile	1.00
Code Inspection	9.00
Unit Test	3.00
Build and Integration Test	3.00
System Test	5.00
Postmortem	1.00

In data shown in Table 1, construction (i.e., activities to build the system – design, code, build) consumes about 65% of the total effort. The DO-178B/C standard requires additional test-based verification of 100% LOC coverage or modified condition/decision coverage (MC/DC) [Ackermann 2010]. This additional testing would likely increase the total development cost by 50% to 200% because of additional required analysis activities. Depending on the safety level of a component, DO-178C may require exhaustive low-level test of the code. The more stringent levels of test include complete line-of-code coverage, test of all decisions (essentially path coverage), and MC/DC [DO-178 IG 2015]. The result is that effort to develop and execute the tests can substantially exceed the effort to develop the code. To account for this effort, we will apply a factor of 2.0 to the construction, realized in the unit test phase. We will also consider that very high assurance generally applies additional resources to inspections, typically four to five inspectors rather than the more common two to three inspectors.

The most direct potential for savings from MBE is through reducing the effort for phases from detailed-level design (DLD) through unit test, which in TSP benchmarks contain roughly 64% of the total effort (see Table 1). MBE approaches might reduce these aspects even more when combined

with use of a certified code generator, as produced code is automatically compliant with regulatory constraints. Additional savings may be realized from efficiency in the design phases, during integration, and through lower levels of defects.

The SEI's experience with high-reliability systems has been that a high-quality process leads to a low number of defects and reduces rather than increases cost [Nichols 2012, Obradovic 2013]. Nonetheless, actual industry practice and estimates of cost for high-reliability software vary widely. Shull reports increases to development costs ranging from 50% to 1,000% due to more coding constraints and certification requirements (e.g., testing, validation) [Shull 2002]. The SEI data suggest that the costs are not due to reliability per se but to the cost of developing, executing, and documenting the required test-based verification activities.

A white paper by Hilderman suggests that with planning, a high-quality development process, and test automation, the increase in cost would be a factor of roughly 1.7 [Hilderman 2009]. In a book on avionics certification, Hilderman states that SEI/CMMI Level 3 techniques should increase costs of developing safety-critical systems by 25–40%, with industry experience averaging closer to 75–100% [Hilderman 2007]. In his book on the economics of software quality, Capers Jones reports that CMMI Level 5 has among the lowest development costs [Jones 2011]. By focusing on system design, validating its correctness before implementation, and automatically generating certified code, an MBE development process delivers high-dependability systems quickly and affordably.

From these varied data, we might suppose that (1) the skill and experience of the staff are a significant factor and (2) extensive use of testing as quality control, as required for certification by DO-178B, will increase costs. A typical industry rule of thumb is that producing high-quality software increases cost by a factor of 3 [Ebert 2009], though this appears to rely more on tests than alternative verification methods. It seems a reasonable estimate that cost savings can be realized through quality assurance (process), and cost increases can result from exhaustive testing for quality control. To analyze the cost savings, we will use the conservative estimates that assume an emphasis on software quality assurance prior to application of quality control.

From the quality data and modeling, software assurance for high-reliability systems typically costs more until the product is released into test. After release to test, net savings are realized from running test cases once or just a few times, as opposed to a test-until-fixed approach, which tends to increase both the number of times a test suite is executed as well as the overall schedule.

Typical costs for inspection and testing effort run between 30% and 70% of the overall initial construction effort [RTI 2002], with either assurance level or defect content having the ability to dominate costs if it is high. Highly effective inspections require about 1 developer hour per 200 lines of code inspected, typically with four or five inspectors assigned. The inspection process alone could then cost 25 hours per KSLOC. TSP benchmark data indicates that there are less than 1,000 direct hours available per developer per year, which suggests that inspection alone would require at least 25 man years of effort for 1 MSLOC. MBE alters both the introduction and removal of defects; therefore, we include a description of the defect potentials in software.

Defects are injected in all portions of the development lifecycle, including maintenance. Jones provides some benchmark data for the typical number of defects, shown in Table 2 [Jones 2009].

Table 2: Average Defect Potentials for Software in the United States [Data from Jones 2009]

Source of Defect	Defects per Function Point
Requirements	1.00
Architecture	0.30
Design	1.15
Code	1.35
Security code flaws	0.25 (security flaws)
Documents	0.50
Bad fixes	0.40
Total	4.95

Note that in Jones' data, requirements, design, and code each contribute comparable numbers of defects. Not included in this table is the defect potential of the test cases themselves, which in our experience (and verified in private communications with multiple developers) is comparable to the code defects.

Jones has pointed out that the defect potential depends on the implementation choices; for example, two different languages require different code sizes to implement functionality and therefore inject substantially different numbers of defects [Jones 2012b]. To a first approximation, the defect levels scale with the size of the implementation. This is largely because developers inject defects into hand-crafted code at statistically predictable rates; thus defects scale with code size.

Table 3: Defect Potentials in Comparable Systems for C and Java [Data from Jones 2012a]

Defect Source	Defects in C per 2,000 SLOC Defects	Defects in Java per 1,000 SLOC Defects
Requirements	10	10
Design	20	20
Source code	30	15
Documents	3	3
Bad fixes	2	2
Total	65	50
Per KSLOC	3.25	2.5

Using an MBE approach to development instead of traditional approaches improves the development process of most major lifecycle activities. With data collected from industry case studies, we estimated the potential reduction in cost for two DALs: Level A (with the highest constraints, where a failure has catastrophic consequences) and Level C (where a failure has major consequences) [RTCA 2011b]. Software at a high DAL requires more testing and analysis (e.g., code coverage, state validation), increasing development costs. Table 4 summarizes how an MBE environment might affect the development process for safety-critical code. The phase effort ratios are similar to those seen in our TSP benchmark data, but show slightly more use of test and less use of review and inspection. The values are similar enough that we are confident that the data and models are sufficiently reliable to provide reasonable estimates. The use of MBE will alter the assumptions.

Table 4: MBE Effect on Baseline Development for DO-178C Level C and A

Activity	Use of MBE in Development	Baseline % Effort	Reduction for DAL C	Reduction for DAL A
Plan	MBE provides a repeatable process for planning, saving time, and making the plan more	9.3%	75%	75%

	accurate and predictable. Substantially less planning effort is devoted to coding and testing activities.			
Requirements, system design, functions, and system architecture	MBE is used to model functions and architecture.	8.4%	17%	20%
System requirements allocated to software	Formal notation helps in early stage of control algorithms design.	11.2%	17%	25%
Software design	The formally defined language is used directly for embedded software design.	6.5%	19%	25%
Code	Code is generated directly from the design, though some specific manual code remains.	16.8%	77%	83%
Test	A code generator can be certified. The test environment for host and target can be qualified as a verification tool. While the designs must be verified, the code generation development process reduces the need for low-level testing of generated code. Formal MBE enables development of tools to support developing and running the same high-level tests on both host and target.	14.0%	59%	56%
Reviews and inspections	Design and architecture have formal designs that can be reviewed with tool support. If the code generator is certified, code review is unnecessary for generated code. Manual code still requires review. Low-level test reviews are unnecessary where verification requires no test. User Context verification is automated. Detailed Certification Kits enable a repeatable process to be enacted.	16.8%	44%	60%
Integration, software of components, hardware, and software	The formally defined model and components enable integration development and measurement coverage with automated support.	16.8%	79%	80%
	Final estimated effort % of baseline	100%	59%	43%

First, in the planning activity, use of the tools and formal methods requires a disciplined, repeatable process. The repeatable process can be reused, and benchmark data can be used for planning. Moreover, a substantial portion of planning typically involves estimation of the software size, coding, and testing. In the manual case, just under 10% of the effort is required. The net from the process change is a reduction of 75% more or less, regardless of Level C or Level A.

Second, MBE supports the early requirements and design through formal modeling of the functionality and architecture. Modeling the control algorithms using formal notation also helps in the early stages of design to allocate functionality to software. These stages typically require about 20% of the total effort and can be modestly reduced with tool support. Tools and formal methods reduce the effort by just under 20% for Level C and just over 20% for the more rigorous Level A.

Third, software design is performed, whether implicitly or explicitly, regardless of MBE use. MBE, however, provides a formal approach directly applicable to embedded systems, along with tool support. The result is a modest reduction in effort of 20% to 25% in the software design phase.

Fourth, by generating code from design, MBE eliminates much of the coding effort, thereby eliminating that cost. This reduction can vary according to the particular MBE environment used.

However, experience indicates that roughly 20% of the code must still be manually constructed or modified, leaving a significant 80% savings for this stage.

Fifth, for an MBE environment certified to generate code, the product is precisely what the design language specifies, and the inspection and testing costs are reduced dramatically since verification is proven through the code generator rather than by inspection and test. Designs must still be inspected and tested, as must manually written code, but code, code review, and detailed test efforts are substantially reduced. The cost benefits of using a certified code generator are magnified at this point. Assuming that inspectors and test developers are familiar with the design language involved, whether graphical, textual, or a mix, any reduction in the complexity of the design should result in less effort to verify (inspect and test) and in higher quality (fewer defects escaping from development).

Sixth, the integration effort in Table 4 is for certified and predictable components for which the interactions have been formally modeled. Integrating the various parts of a complex software system is usually a case of assembling its component parts in a logical sequence in order to verify the expected operation of each part in its proper place, typically only with minimal, expected interactions with other parts. A simpler, less complex system should result in a simpler, quicker, and less error-prone integration effort, both in designing the integration and actually performing it. Use of MBE should result not only in finding fewer defects during integration but also in improving configuration management of the components, thus reducing time and effort related to integration activities. The effort of integration and debugging can be reduced by about 80%.

As systems become larger and more complex, we suspect that the inherent benefits of MBE, especially when considering the benefits of reducing the complexity of the underlying model, may be understated. During the integration phase, having a less complex system (e.g., fewer interfaces, fewer components, and models that are easy to understand and well documented) will make this phase faster to complete. Also, MBE facilitates the auto-integration of models that use different notations, which would then automate the integration process. We do not estimate these latter effects here, but it seems logical to assume that these benefits could become more significant as the size and essential complexity of a system increase.

MBE does, however, increase some costs. There may be some growth in the effort to develop and interpret requirements. The design of a solution that satisfies requirements requires developers trained in the chosen MBE environment rather than developers who presumably would work with less well-specified inputs. We can also assume that more time will be spent in developing the more rigorous and detailed design. It is reasonable to assume that a more highly trained, and thus more expensive, group of designers will be required. While verification is still necessary to confirm that the design satisfies the requirements, this effort should remain steady or possibly be reduced somewhat since all relevant aspects of the design should be explicitly available due to the input demands of MBE.

2.3 Maintenance

Maintenance includes defect fixes, addition of new functionality, improvement of existing functionality or performance, or adaptation to a new environment, hardware, or software. Various sources, including Banker and the Software Technology Support Center, suggest that maintenance comprises 60% to 90% of the total lifetime costs [Banker 1991, 1993; STSC 2003]. Because

maintenance is the biggest contributor of the total cost of ownership (TCO), we will examine the effect of MBE generally on the maintenance phase of the product lifecycle and the impact of complexity over these activities. As safety-critical systems are maintained for decades, software complexity has a critical impact and will ultimately affect maintenance activities.

Capers Jones lists a number of categories of work performed under the generic term “maintenance,” reproduced in Table 5.

Table 5: Major Kinds of Work Performed During Maintenance [Jones 2006]

1. Major Enhancements (new features of > 20 function points)
2. Minor Enhancements (new features of < 5 function points)
3. Maintenance (repairing defects for good will)
4. Warranty repairs (repairing defects under formal contract)
5. Customer support (responding to client phone calls or problem reports)
6. Error-prone module removal (eliminating very troublesome code segments)
7. Mandatory changes (required or statutory changes)
8. Complexity analysis (quantifying control flow using complexity metrics)
9. Code restructuring (reducing cyclomatic and essential complexity)
10. Optimization (increasing performance or throughput)
11. Migration (moving software from one platform to another)
12. Conversion (Changing the interface or file structure)
13. Reverse engineering (extracting latent design information from code)
14. Reengineering (transforming legacy application to client-server form)
15. Dead code removal (removing segments no longer utilized)
16. Dormant application elimination (archiving unused software)
17. Nationalization (modifying software for international use)
18. Year 2000 Repairs (date format expansion or masking)
19. Euro-currency conversion (adding the new unified currency to financial applications)
20. Retirement (withdrawing an application from active service)
21. Field service (sending maintenance members to client locations)

We discuss major and minor enhancements in Section 2.4 on upgrades. Most, but not all, other items on this list are relevant to the embedded software in control systems and avionics. For example, we can ignore Y2K and currency conversions. Also, avionic software should have few or no error-prone modules, dead code, or unused software because these are DO-178C requirements). We begin by demonstrating substantial savings with the reduction of defects.

A common feature of maintenance is the modification of existing software (e.g., bug fixes). In this respect, maintenance work looks like and costs similarly to new development, and the estimates from MBE for development still apply. According to Capers Jones, TCO is largely driven by defect removal [Jones 2009]; however, other factors may apply. Such factors include the comprehensiveness and correctness of designs, adequacy of documentation, configuration management, and staff familiarity with the products.

Maintenance costs tend to be somewhat higher per changed line of code for a variety of reasons:

- New staff are unfamiliar with the current design and implementations (as safety-critical systems operate for decades, the staff maintaining the software is usually not the staff who developed it).
- Poorly structured code (or models) is more difficult to understand and alter, especially with undertrained staff.

- Defects found in operation can be difficult to reproduce and locate in the code or model.
- For large bodies of code or models, it is difficult to maintain the current design.
- Regression tests must be maintained and executed for each change.
- Changes can introduce unanticipated incompatibilities within the system.

Banker estimates that software complexity itself can increase maintenance costs of commercial applications by 25% and increase the total lifecycle costs by 17% [Banker 1993]. Considering not only that safety-critical applications have stringent quality requirements but also that both the software and models of such applications must be maintained for decades, the real costs could be higher than these estimates for critical applications.

Maintenance costs are largely mitigated through use of MBE for the following reasons:

- Designs provide a higher level of abstraction and focus on business concerns, hiding unnecessary complexity.
- Designs are the primary developer artifact and are maintained through use of the tool.
- Staff can hide implementation details and focus attention at a higher level of analysis than the detailed code.
- Optimization and low-level structure are managed through code generation (especially true when using certified code generator) or at the design level of abstraction.
- For MBE environments providing certified code generation, the same reductions in cost and escaped defects enjoyed in development are repeated in maintenance.
- Code restructuring is largely unnecessary, or if it is necessary, it happens for only the effort required to change the model, with the code following along for minimal or zero cost.
- Fewer regression tests must be maintained.

Jones provides a sample calculation showing factors of 0.5 to 10 TCO savings in development, enhancement, and maintenance when using high-quality, certifiable, reused components [Jones 2009]. That is, the benefits of high quality not only propagate throughout the product life but also provide larger savings during the maintenance phase than during initial development. If fewer defects escape from development due to the reduced complexity there, maintenance cost should be reduced proportionally. Also, the simpler MBE artifacts that result from reduced complexity make finding and fixing defects easier and faster.

For long-lived systems, adaptation to new hardware components must from time to time be accounted for, as obsolete hardware is replaced with newer components. The integration of new hardware components usually requires software revisions to accommodate changes to the inputs, outputs, and performance. MBE affects the software development and verification during this stage as much as MBE affects new development.

Finally, the maintenance staff is often not the same staff who did the development, especially for systems operating for many years. Some systems are maintained for more than 50 years and require software upgrades to support additional components and adaptation to new operating systems or processors. In this case, there is a potentially large effort just to understand the existing artifacts. MBE provides obvious benefits through a smaller, design-oriented view of software

functionality than the code itself, and any reduction in complexity of the MBE artifacts will reduce that effort accordingly. Thus in maintenance activities, reduction of complexity will have the biggest potential savings.

2.4 Upgrades

Upgrades are a small-to-medium development activity integrated with maintenance efforts. An upgrade combines substantial development and integration. Most of the analysis that applies to new development will, once again, directly apply to upgrades. Depending on the type of upgrade, MBE will either reduce or avoid effort. When integrating a new functionality, the use of MBE will reduce the upgrade process through the same benefits as in development and other maintenance activities. In some cases (e.g., support of a new execution platform, such as modification of the operating system or target processor), upgrade efforts will be supported by the code generator.

During upgrade activities, developers must understand the existing development artifacts in order to accommodate the new features into the design. This is made easier by using a high-level representation, as provided by the MBE environment, that hides implementation complexity. The process is reinforced by the use of a certified code generator, as the generated code does not need to be reviewed.

Then developers must design the upgrade (again, made easier by reduced initial complexity) and implement the upgrade (with the same logic in favor of reduced complexity as in development, and enhanced in the case of certified code generation). Finally, they must integrate and test the upgrade with the same approach discussed in initial development. The same factors apply, favoring reduced complexity, reduced unit test, and automated support for integration and integration test.

2.5 Summary and Conclusion

In this analysis, we have seen that the baseline assumptions for productivity are supported by both industry data and data collected from TSP teams. Conventional development approaches fail to scale because the cost per line of code becomes prohibitive at some volume of code. New development approaches that reduce development efforts and overall complexity are required to address this issue. The MBE paradigm seems to address these problems by

- reducing design complexity with a higher level of abstraction that focuses on system design, validates it earlier, and hides implementation (e.g., code) details
- generating code from the models, thereby reducing implementation (e.g., code production) activities
- reducing testing and certification activities, especially when using a certified code generator
- assisting with the management of change propagation during maintenance via a high-level set of reusable components

We showed that when using a certified code generator, MBE can cut 50% of the development costs, depending on the criticality level, as illustrated in Table 4. Obviously, the more critical the component, the more tests engineers must write and execute. And when large numbers of tests must be written and executed, an MBE approach with a certified code generator will reduce testing efforts and increase savings.

Using an MBE approach makes the development process more robust and eases the certification process and the related testing activities. In addition, reducing model complexity has a significant impact on maintenance activities, and maintaining a well-documented model that is easy to understand and modify will decrease the TCO. Because safety-critical systems are maintained for decades, ensuring high-quality development artifacts (with reduced complexity) can reduce the TCO merely by reducing the effort in development, inspection, and test. Complexity reduction alone may reduce the maintenance costs by 25% and the TCO by 17%. Although model complexity is a contributor to high-quality components, this study demonstrates that maintaining low-complexity components and delivering high-quality models reduce maintenance activities and associated costs.

3 Detecting and Avoiding Complexity

3.1 Complexity Measures and Metrics

Software complexity is different at the architecture level, where it is defined by how components communicate and are integrated, than at the code or behavior level, where it is defined by how components are implemented.

At the architecture level, notations range from informal (narrative descriptions, block diagrams, etc.) to formal, in the form of architecture description languages (ADLs), state machines, and computer code. ADLs capture abstracted components of the system and their interactions among one another [Aiguier 2009]. Given that ADLs represent a specification formalism of architectural connectors, the denotation is essentially a formalism in which complexity can be characterized by the notation of property emergence. Aiguier considers a system complex when the global system does not preserve the complete behavior of some subsystems and when some global properties cannot be deduced from a complete knowledge of system components. Unfortunately, and probably because of a lack of efficient notations, there has been limited application of this work on architecture complexity to identify and measure software complexity in models.

Most often, complexity metrics are applied at the code level. The code structure—along with data and control flow paths and associated interface variables—form the basis for assessing complexity. In addition, code is a formal notation that can be processed to produce complexity metrics. The following paragraphs introduce metrics used in industry to gain insight into the complexity of the software.

3.1.1 McCabe Complexity Metric

McCabe complexity focuses on the data flow in the architecture [McCabe 1976]. The metric represents a program as a graph and defines the complexity, C , as

$$C = E - N + 2P,$$

where E is the number of edges, N is the number of nodes, and P is the number of connected components.

One problem with the McCabe complexity metric is its application to various programming languages and the granularity of the mapping between the graph and the programming language. In some cases, the graph is mapped onto different source code artifacts and two analysis tools might have different interpretations of the metrics and their representation in the programming language. For example, an edge can be a use relationship, a method/function call, or an inheritance link. When using this metric, we must keep these restrictions in mind and clearly define our mapping between the model elements and the graph.

3.1.2 Halstead Complexity Metrics

Halstead metrics aim to estimate the programming effort [Halstead 1972, 1977]. The metrics can be applied to preliminary software design artifacts (pseudo code) as well as to the code itself. The metrics are based on counting various characteristics of the software system:

- $n1$: number of distinct operators
- $n2$: number of distinct operands
- $N1$: total number of operators
- $N2$: total number of operands

The following measures are then produced:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Program Length } N &= N1 + N2 \\ \text{Program Vocabulary } n &= n1 + n2 \\ \text{Program Volume } V &= N * \log n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Difficulty } D &= \frac{n1}{2} * N2/n2 \\ \text{Effort } E &= D * V \\ \text{Time to Implement } T &= E/18 \\ \text{Number of delivered bugs: } &\frac{E ** \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)}{3,000} \end{aligned}$$

The constants (18 for the time to implement the system and 3,000 for the number of delivered bugs) were defined by Halstead himself. It might be useful to revise them, depending on the application background, the domain, and specific constraints or requirements on the software.

Because they work at the implementation level (processing the source code), Halstead metrics can be inaccurate for users who want metrics for a higher level of abstraction: producing these metrics requires the actual system realization.

3.1.3 Zage Complexity Metrics

Zage metrics focus on two measures [Zage 1993]:

- D_e : an external metric related to the component's external interfaces and other interactions within the system
- D_i : an internal metric related to the component's internal structure (algorithms, internal data flows, etc.)

The global metrics are then the sum of both D_e and D_i .

D_e , the external measure, is defined as follows for a particular component in the system:

$$D_e = e_1 * (\#inputs * \#outputs) + e_2 (\#fanin * \#fanout),$$

where e_1 and e_2 are weighting factors defined by the user.

D_i , the internal measure, is defined as follows:

$$D_i = i_1 * CC + i_2 DSM + i_3 I/O,$$

where

- i_1 , i_2 , and i_3 are weighting factors defined by the user
- CC is the number of procedure invocations
- DSM is the number of references to complex data types (pointers, records, arrays, etc.)
- I/O is the number of input/output operations (read a device, write in a file, receive data from the network, etc.)

The external metric focuses on the external interfaces (what is using or used by the component) and does not take into account the data flow in the architecture (in contrast to other metrics, such as McCabe's). The internal metric is very precise but can be difficult to map into a programming language. For example, some concepts are not present or are hidden by some languages: the number of I/Os is often abstracted by the language, and the number of references to complex data types is language dependent (e.g., in Java, any object variable can be counted as a pointer).

3.1.4 Program Counting

There are many other metrics to analyze software and to characterize and identify complexity. In some respects, the McCabe, Halstead, and Zage metrics also use these values to provide a better view of complexity. However, in some cases, the raw data alone can be a good indicator of software complexity. One simple approach is to count the program elements and identify whether there are too few, too many, or just enough elements. Some coding guidelines use program counting approaches to evaluate the complexity and quality of a piece of code. For example, in the Linux kernel coding style, the code should have fewer than four levels of indentation to keep it simple to understand [LKO 2015]. Many similar techniques can give developers insight into software complexity, such as the number of functions, use of specialized data types, number of arguments for a method or function, and the number of methods within a class.

3.2 Effects on System Qualities: Application of Complexity Metrics in a Model-Based Environment

Can one apply complexity metrics that have been developed for specific programming languages and design artifacts to actual models, which rely on several different tools and languages? In fact, due to differences in language semantics, existing metrics cannot be used on all programs because the language does not provide the required values. For example, current code analysis tools have different understandings of dependencies in Java, such as use of a class and call of a method. Thus, applying complexity metrics initially designed for traditional programming languages in a model-based environment is a real challenge. It is a paradigm shift that needs some tailoring. The design methods for manual code and models use different artifacts; to apply the metrics in models, one has to identify how to map programming language concepts into models.

This challenge has been previously discussed mostly for Simulink models. Prabhu applies McCabe's cyclomatic complexity and the Halstead metrics to evaluate the complexity of Simulink models [Prabhu 2010]. He notes the challenge of switching from programming languages to

models: metrics have to be tailored and values obtained at the code or model level so that computed values are different. Olszewska introduced new metrics specific to high-level design [Olszewska 2011]. They focus primarily on model counting, such as the average number of blocks per layer or the stability of the number of inputs/outputs across the model.

Actual modeling tools include limited support for complexity features. In MATLAB, SLdiagnostics provides a model counting tool but does not apply any existing complexity metrics used with typical programming languages such as McCabe or Halstead [MathWorks 2014]. But model-based engineering is still emerging, and the topic of software model complexity is fairly new. Before integrating complexity-related features into modeling tools, it is worth defining how to identify complexity in models and how to compute it.

Similarly to programming languages, commercial modeling tools have guidelines and rules for writing models [ANSYS 2014b, MAAB 2007]. Rules are focused not solely on quantitative aspects (e.g., number of components, connections) but also on graphical aspects (organization of model elements when using a graphical representation), naming rules, data type definitions, components to use or avoid, and others. Even if these guidelines can help the system designer, there is no automatic support for validating their enforcement.

3.3 Cost Savings Estimates

Research has demonstrated that MBE can save a significant amount of effort, especially for safety-critical systems, due to better design and a reduced need for testing [Hagan 2012]. Costs savings are even more significant when the code generator is certified by DO-178C standards [RTCA 2011a], which further reduces the number of tests to be performed. Empirical studies based on previous projects show that using models can save from 21% (using a regular platform) to almost 60% (using a certified platform) when producing software at the highest criticality level (e.g., DAL A for DO-178C, which is the most stringent in terms of verification) and from 30% (non-certified platform) to 40% (certified platform) when designing software at the lowest level (e.g., DAL D). As there are fewer verification activities for software at a lower criticality level, using a certified code generator does not save as much as when designing critical software.

However, these estimates are often made by tool vendors using in-house models. Because tool vendors have a good knowledge of their own technologies, the models they evaluate do not contain many defects. Models from designers can have a lot more complexity that originates from the users' background, experience, and understanding of a tool. For practitioners, the model complexity becomes a variability factor when estimating software development costs. These estimates not only show the value of MBE but also how much complexity increases or decreases software development costs. The previous section of this report provided more detailed cost savings estimates not only for the development process but also for the overall lifecycle.

4 Detecting Complexity – A Practical Example

4.1 Tool Overview

We built our complexity metric tools as scripts written in the TCL language to be installed on SCADE. SCADE supports the installation of TCL scripts as extensions, and these scripts are fully integrated in the SCADE environment. In the following, we explain what part of the model the tool covers so that users will understand what it does. For installation instructions, a complete user guide is available in the work of Nam [Nam 2015].

4.2 Discovering and Reducing Avoidable Complexity

The following metrics are available in our tools:

- **McCabe:** computes the regular McCabe metric for a node [McCabe 1976]
- **Halstead:** computes the Halstead metrics for a node [Halstead 1972, 1977]
- **Zage:** computes the Zage metrics for a node [Zage 1993]
- **nesting level:** counts the depth of non-predefined operators and state machine states in modeling components
- **generic type:** detects use of generic types (int, bool, etc.)
- **single connection check:** looks for operators that may be better merged with other operators because they consist of a single input connection

To use the tool, select the operator (a) that you want to analyze, and invoke the tool using the Complexity Tools menu (b), as shown in Figure 4.

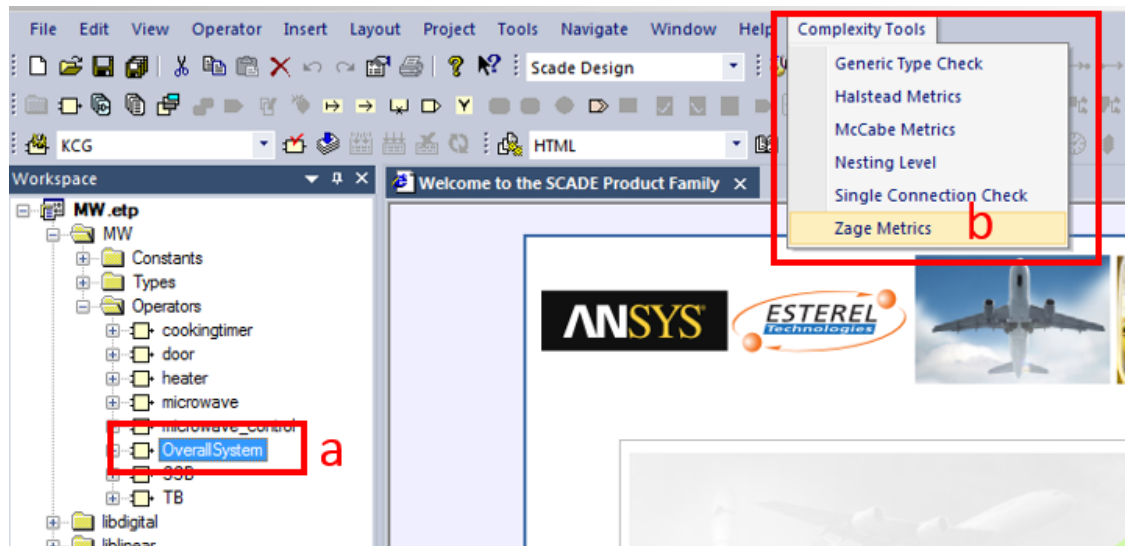


Figure 4: Invoking the Complexity Metrics Tools

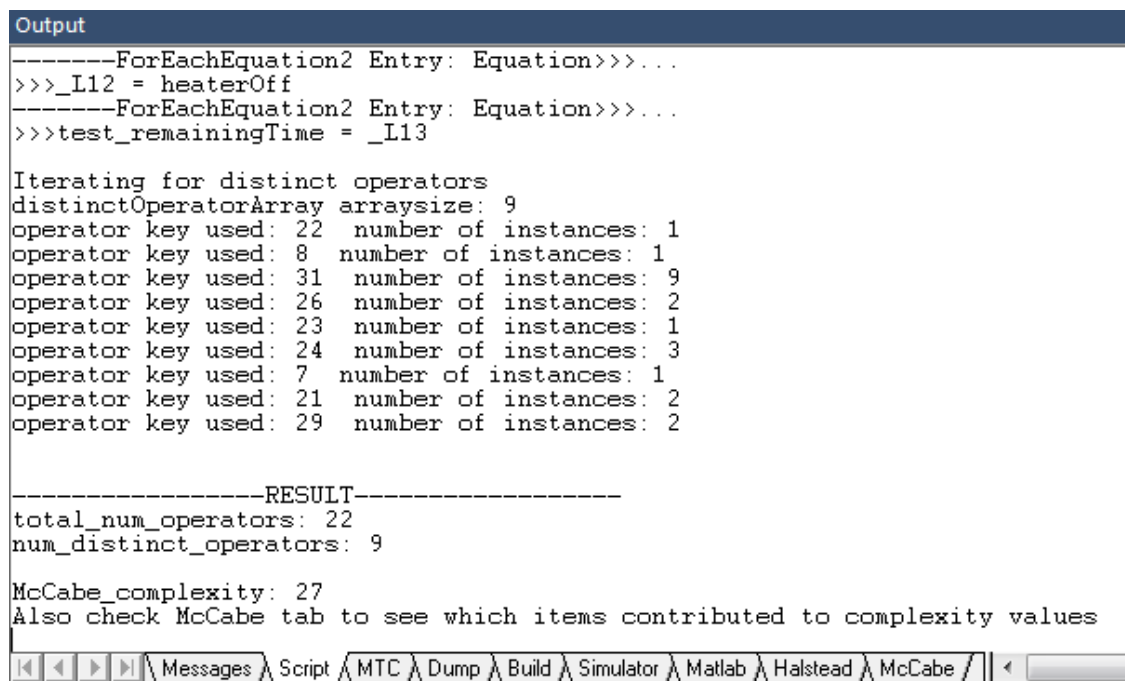
In the following, we describe the implementation of each complexity metric and detail what part of a SCADE model is being processed. Consequently, it would be useful to be familiar with the SCADE tool.

4.2.1 McCabe Metric

For the McCabe metric, the tool searches for IF and CASE statements and loops (FOR statements) in the model and counts them to calculate the McCabe complexity value. For CASE statements, it considers the number of case values and whether or not they are default values. It currently does *not* check “If Block,” “If Node,” “When Block,” and “When Branch” in SCADE. State machines generate case statements in code. Thus, the tool considers the number of states. Also, the tool recognizes that if a state machine has at least one strong transition (a transition that activates a state when the transition condition becomes true), each state counts for two cases. Each transition in a state machine generates one IF statement. Among the predefined operators, we found that the operators in the “Higher Order” category generate FOR loops. Each FOR loop is counted as 1.

Currently the tool starts from the selected operator and checks all equations and contained operators, which are also represented as equations. If a state machine exists in the operator, the tool searches inside the states and state transitions for the aforementioned elements. For state transitions, the tool checks only the conditions. States can contain other state machines inside, so the tool searches recursively through all state machines.

After the tool runs, it prints the final McCabe complexity value in the Script tab in Output, as shown in Figure 5.



```
-----ForEachEquation2 Entry: Equation>>>...
>>>_L12 = heaterOff
-----ForEachEquation2 Entry: Equation>>>...
>>>test_remainingTime = _L13

Iterating for distinct operators
distinctOperatorArray arraysize: 9
operator key used: 22  number of instances: 1
operator key used: 8  number of instances: 1
operator key used: 31 number of instances: 9
operator key used: 26 number of instances: 2
operator key used: 23 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 24 number of instances: 3
operator key used: 7  number of instances: 1
operator key used: 21 number of instances: 2
operator key used: 29 number of instances: 2

-----RESULT-----
total_num_operators: 22
num_distinct_operators: 9

McCabe_complexity: 27
Also check McCabe tab to see which items contributed to complexity values
```

Figure 5: McCabe Complexity Value in the Script Tab

The McCabe tab shows which elements contributed to the final complexity count; see the Count column in Figure 6.

Output	
Script Item	Count
<1>	9
door_closed	11
door_open	13
<1>	14
<1>	15
if _L20 then (_L15) else (_L21)	16
if _L25 then (_L29) else (_L28)	17
if _L30 then (_L32) else (_L31)	18
if _L25 then (_L21) else (_L22)	19
if _L3 then (_L1) else (_L2)	20
Stop	22
Start	24
<1>	25
<1>	26
if _L2 then (_L5) else (_L4)	27

Figure 6: McCabe Tab

4.2.2 Halstead Metrics

To evaluate Halstead metrics, the tool calculates four values:

1. total number of operators
2. total numbers of operands
3. total number of distinct operators
4. total number of distinct operands

To do this, the tool navigates through the model, finds all “Predefined Operators” as defined in SCADE, and counts their number of instances. If an operator is used at least once, it is counted as 1 for the number of operators. For each operator, the tool also investigate its inputs for operands. It calculates the total number of operands by adding all parameters that are of the type ExprId for each predefined operator instance.

To account for distinct operands, if an input to one operator is also an input to another, those inputs count as one single operand. The tool calculates the number of operands by first saving all local variables in an operator into a set. The total number of local variables in the set is N_{all} . Then for each suboperator, the tool tries to remove all local variables that are used as inputs from the set. After the tool does this for each suboperator, the set is left with local variables that are used only for outputs or saved in local variables (and never used for input to another operator). The current size of the set equals N_{output} . Then by subtracting N_{output} from N_{all} , we get the number of distinct inputs that exist for all the suboperators in an operator. We add this value for every SCADE operator.

The accuracy depends on whether the search goes to every possible place in the model that could have a predefined operator. Currently the tool starts from the selected operator and checks all equations and contained operators that are also represented as equations. If a state machine exists in the operator, the tool searches inside the states and state transitions for equations and operators. For state transitions, it checks only the conditions. States can have another state machine inside, and the tool recursively searches through all state machines.

In Figure 7, the Halstead Script tab shows the results of the analysis and the values for the total number of operators, operands, distinct operators, and distinct operands. It will also display which operator keys (unique values in SCADE for each predefined operator) exist and how frequently they are used.

```

Iterating for distinct operators
distinctOperatorArray arraysize: 10
operator key used: 22 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 8 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 31 number of instances: 9
operator key used: 26 number of instances: 2
operator key used: 23 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 24 number of instances: 7
operator key used: 3 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 7 number of instances: 1
operator key used: 21 number of instances: 2
operator key used: 29 number of instances: 2

-----RESULT-----
total_num_operators: 27
total_num_operands: 36
num_distinct_operators: 10
num_distinct_operands: 24
Also check Halstead tab for which predefined operators were considered
and which operands were counted for total.

```

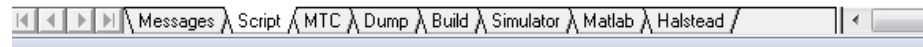


Figure 7: Script Execution Output

From the Halstead tab, shown in Figure 8, users can do a visual check of which operators and operands are accounted for. The count column shows only the total count number and not the distinct number for an item.

Output		
Script Item	Count	Type
└ _L25	29	Num Operand
└ _L21	Not ExprId	ForEachParameter
└ _L22	Not ExprId	ForEachParameter
└ _L21 <= _L22	23	Num Operator
└ _L21	30	Num Operand
└ _L22	31	Num Operand
└ _L1 >= _L2	24	Num Operator
└ _L1	32	Num Operand
└ _L2	33	Num Operand
└ if _L3 then (_L1) else (_L2)	25	Num Operator
└ _L3	34	Num Operand
└ _L1	Not ExprId	ForEachParameter
└ _L2	Not ExprId	ForEachParameter
└ physical_push or heater_state = heaterOff	26	Num Operator
└ physical_push	35	Num Operand
└ heater_state = heaterOff	Not ExprId	ForEachParameter

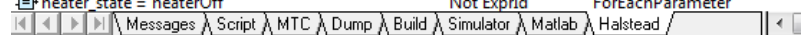


Figure 8: Halstead Tab

4.2.3 Zage Metrics

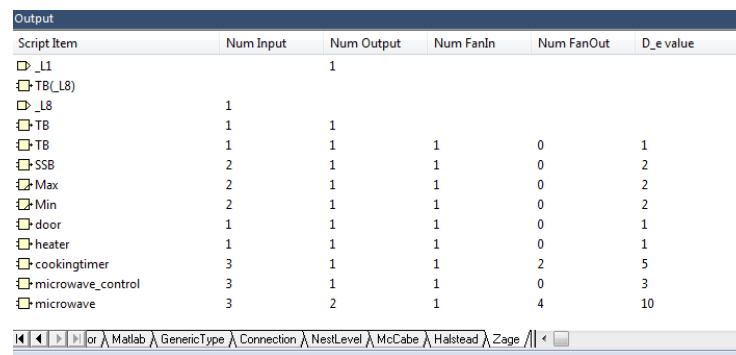
For Zage metrics, the tool looks for four values:

1. number of inputs
2. number of outputs
3. number of fan-in units

4. number of fan-out units

The tool gives these values for each operator that is not predefined. It counts the number of inputs and outputs by analyzing the equation that calls the operator. Fan-in is counted by adding the number of times an operator type is used in the model. Fan-out is counted by the number of suboperators that an operator contains. The tool analyzes operators that are given in the SCADE as libraries to use, such as MAX and MIN.

In Figure 9, the result is shown at the end of the tab named *Zage*. After scrolling down to the end of the table, the user sees a list of all the non-predefined operators that were used, the four values listed above, and the D_e value (the external design metric), which is currently the multiple of Num Input and Num Output summed with the multiple of FanIn and FanOut. Weight factors are simplified to 1.



Output					
Script Item	Num Input	Num Output	Num FanIn	Num FanOut	D_e value
↳ _L1		1			
↳ TB(_L8)					
↳ _L8	1				
↳ TB	1	1			
↳ TB	1	1	1	0	1
↳ SSB	2	1	1	0	2
↳ Max	2	1	1	0	2
↳ Min	2	1	1	0	2
↳ door	1	1	1	0	1
↳ heater	1	1	1	0	1
↳ cookingtimer	3	1	1	2	5
↳ microwave_control	3	1	1	0	3
↳ microwave	3	2	1	4	10

Figure 9: Zage Metrics Tab Results

4.2.4 Nesting Level

In Figure 10, the Script tab shows the maximum nesting level, and the NestLevel tab shows the level of each non-predefined operator and state that were identified in the model.

Output		
Script Item	Level	
microwave	1	
microwave_control	2	
heater	2	
heater_off	3	
heater_on	3	
door	2	
door_closed	3	
door_open	3	
cookingtimer	2	
Min	3	
Max	3	
SSB	1	
Stop	2	
Start	2	
TB	1	

Figure 10: NestLevel Tab

4.2.5 Generic Type

Input variables are shown in the GenericType tab in Output (Figure 11). Beneath the input variable, the tool shows the variable type. Double-clicking on the variable reveals the location of the variable in the GenericType tab in the Workspace.

Output		
Script Item	Count	Type
SSB_Pushed		
bool		
TB_Pushed		
bool		
Is_Door_Open		
bool		
addTime		
uint16		
open_door		
bool		
remaining_time		
uint16		
open_door		
bool		

Figure 11: GenericType Tab

4.2.6 Single Connection Check

A dialog appears with the total number of operators that have single connections. All non-predefined operators in the model are shown in the Connection tab from Output (Figure 12). Below each operator, the tool shows the count of inputs and indicates whether there is only one connection.

Output		
Script Item	Note	
▢ _L6	2	
▢ _L15 = math::Max(_L12, _L16)		
▢ math::Max(_L12, _L16)		
▢ _L12	1	
▢ _L16	2	
▢ _L2 = SSB(_L7, _L11)		
▢ SSB(_L7, _L11)		
▢ _L7	1	
▢ _L11	2	
▢ _L1 = TB(_L8)		
▢ TB(_L8)		
▢ _L8	1	
▢ TB	Candidate For Merge	

⏪ ⏩ ⏴ ⏵ ⏶ ⏷ ⏸ ⏹ ⏺ ⏻ ⏼ ⏽ ⏾ ⏿ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓟ Ⓡ Ⓢ Ⓣ Ⓤ Ⓥ Ⓦ Ⓧ Ⓨ Ⓩ ⓐ ⓑ ⓓ ⓔ ⓖ ⓗ ⓘ Ⓜ Ⓝ Ⓟ Ⓡ Ⓢ Ⓣ Ⓤ Ⓥ Ⓦ Ⓧ Ⓨ Ⓩ ⓐ ⓑ ⓓ ⓔ ⓖ ⓗ ⓘ

Figure 12: Connection Tab

5 Results and Conclusions

Safety-critical systems, such as those used in the avionics, aerospace, medical, and automotive domains, are becoming more software reliant, and their size has increased enormously. An increase of software volume implies that more components are executed by different computers and connected through different protocols, increasing the software complexity. Compliance with certification requirements for these systems is growing more and more expensive, and verification activities require significant manpower. For those reasons, reducing software size and complexity will lower certification costs and reduce software maintenance efforts.

The purpose of this research was to better understand complexity within a model-based software development paradigm and to determine whether an MBE approach can help reduce the overall complexity of software models and ultimately of safety-critical software. Our research questions were

1. How can we identify complexity in model-based systems?
2. How can we measure complexity and distinguish essential from avoidable complexity?
3. What is the impact of avoidable complexity?
4. How can we mitigate software complexity?

In order to reduce complexity in models and software, a development team must be able to identify and measure it. To identify complexity in software models, we first adapted complexity metrics typically used with traditional programming languages (e.g., Java, C) to modeling languages (e.g., SCADE). We evaluated these established metrics and their relevance for software models. While they provide an overview of a model's complexity, we think that new complexity metrics specific to the model's semantics and its data flow approach would more accurately capture model complexity.

We then introduced our data flow analysis complexity tool, which analyzes each data flow in a model and ultimately provides insight about its inherent complexity (number of components used, division of the flow across the architecture, etc.). We detailed the use of our metrics to identify and reduce avoidable complexity; our tool helps users apply these metrics to the system under development to mitigate complexity through every stage of the system's lifecycle. While these metrics are a step toward a better understanding of model complexity, they need to be calibrated in order to distinguish and qualify models (e.g., which one requires rework or refactoring efforts and what needs to be done).

We estimated that, depending on development requirements and constraints, using an MBE approach could reduce development costs by as much as 50%. In addition to these savings, reducing model complexity could lower maintenance costs by 25%. As maintenance activities account for 70% to 90% of the total lifecycle costs, using a MBE development approach and keeping the complexity of software models low can reduce the TCO for a system by as much as 30%.

Appendix Acronyms

ADL	architecture description language
DAL	Design Assurance Level
DLD	detailed-level design
HLD	high-level design
KSLOC	thousand source lines of code
LOC	lines of code
MBE	model-based engineering
MD/DC	modified condition/decision coverage
MSLOC	million source lines of code
TCL	tool command language
TOC	total cost of ownership
TSP	Team Software Process

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